

Introduction to Digital Circuits and Computer Design

Notes #7

"The MicroComputer"

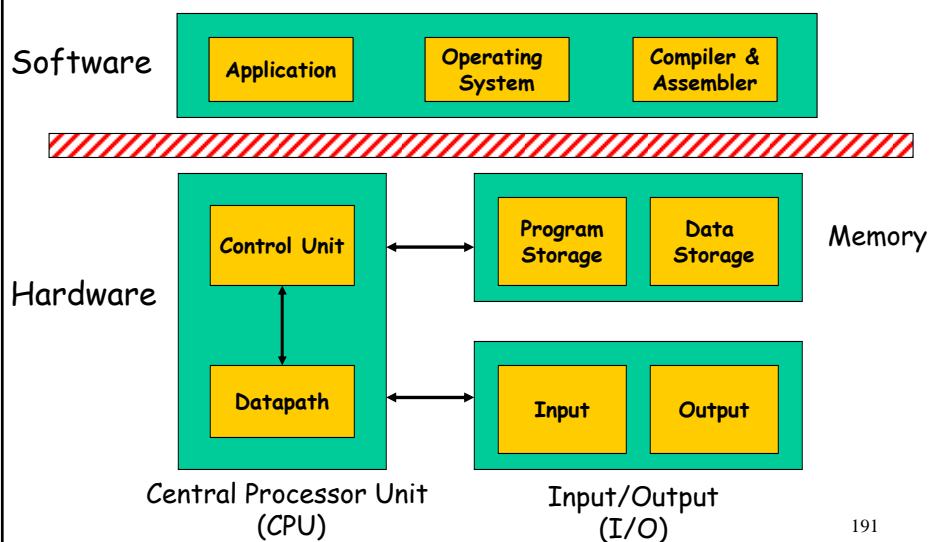
Spring Quarter 2010

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Acknowledgement: Dr. Maarten Uijt de Haag

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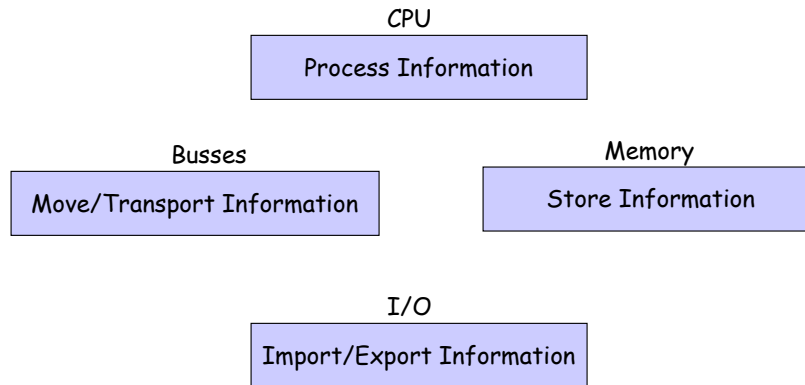
Computer Architecture



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Information!!!

Each of the Computer components has its own specific task with respect to information.



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How

does the previous material (Notes #1,2,3,4,5) fit into computer design?

Datapath

Sequential logic: Registers
Combinational logic: MUXs, adders, multipliers, comparators.

Control Unit

Sequential logic: State machines, registers
Combinational logic: Control of datapath components

Memory

Sequential logic: Registers, RAM
Combinational logic: ROMs, decoders, multiplexers

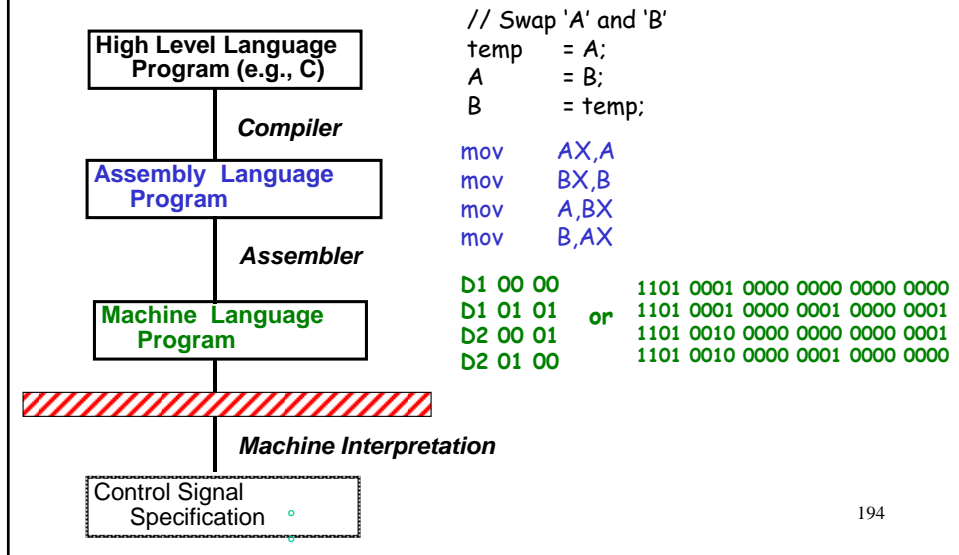
I/O

Sequential logic: Latches (D-flip-flops)
Combinational logic: Decoders, multiplexers

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Review (notes 1)

Information Representation Levels (top-down)



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Review (notes 1)

Program: The Instruction Set

Instruction Set:

the language you use to talk to a specific computer

Or

a set of instructions used to tell a computer what functions/procedures to perform

Instruction Set Architecture:

what kind of instructions does the instruction set consist of.

Note: every computer has a different instruction set (Intel Pentium I, PowerPC G3, etc.)

If we talk about a computer in general and we want to describe the instructions any computer performs we can use **Register Transfer Language (RTL)**; A sort of universal language.

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Review (notes 1)

Programming - RTL - Intro

- RTL is machine independent !!!!

(\cdot) = "Contents of \cdot "
 \leftarrow = "Move operand on right-hand-side to the left-hand-side destination"
 \odot = "AND"
 \oplus = "OR"
 \oplus = "Exclusive-OR"
'+' = "Addition"
'-' = "Subtraction"
'*' = "Multiplication"
'/' = "Division"

VHDL and Verilog are also machine independent description languages but they differ from RTL

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A Simple Computer

Instruction Set Architecture Definition via RTL

Addition: $(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$
 $(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (M)$

Load/Read: $(R1) \leftarrow (M)$
 $(R2) \leftarrow (M)$

Write: $(M) \leftarrow (R1)$
 $(M) \leftarrow (R2)$

} Instructions

Q: suppose we want to identify the instructions by a unique number, how many bits do we need for that?

This computer has 2 general-purpose registers $R1$ and $R2$.


This computer also has a RAM memory, M .

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Our Simple Computer

Op-code Selection - Example

Example:		Binary Code that identifies the instruction to the computer
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>		
Addition:	$(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$	000
	$(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (M)$	001
Load/Read:	$(R1) \leftarrow (M)$	010
	$(R2) \leftarrow (M)$	011
Write:	$(M) \leftarrow (R1)$	100
	$(M) \leftarrow (R2)$	101


 This code is referred to as the op-code

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Our Simple Computer

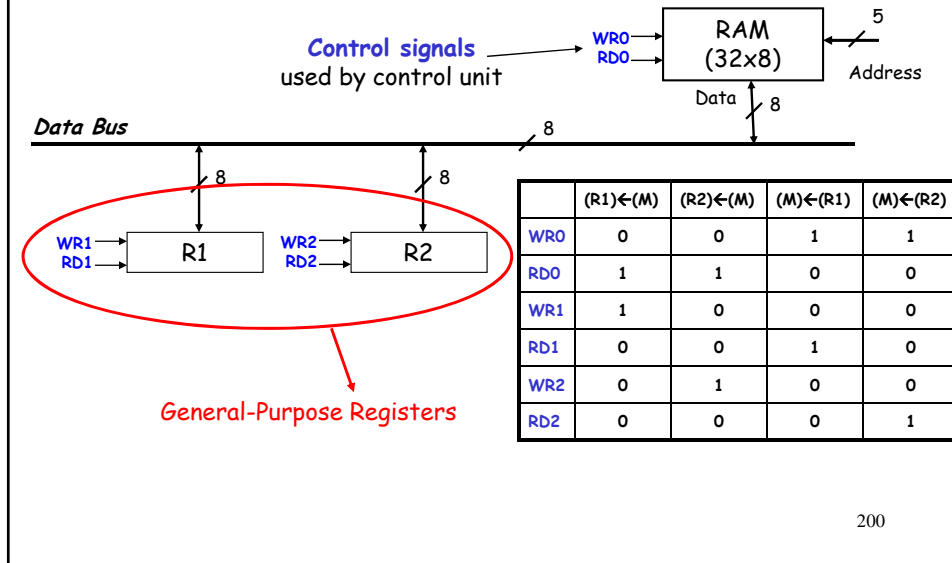
What do we need?

		Combinational	Sequential
Addition:	$(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$ $(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (M)$	adder, multiplexer	registers, RAM
Load/Read:	$(R1) \leftarrow (M)$ $(R2) \leftarrow (M)$		registers, RAM
Write:	$(M) \leftarrow (R1)$ $(M) \leftarrow (R2)$		registers, RAM

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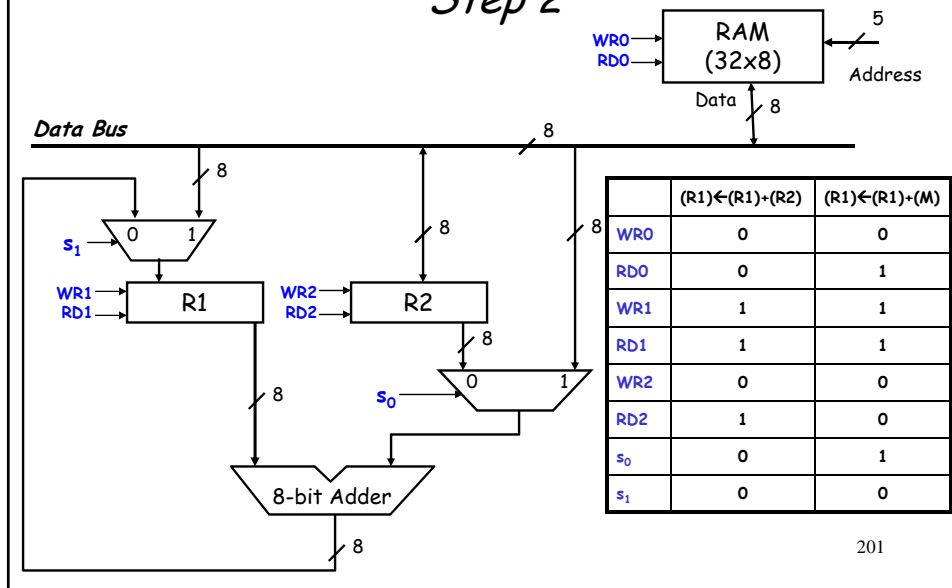
Our Simple Computer

Step 1



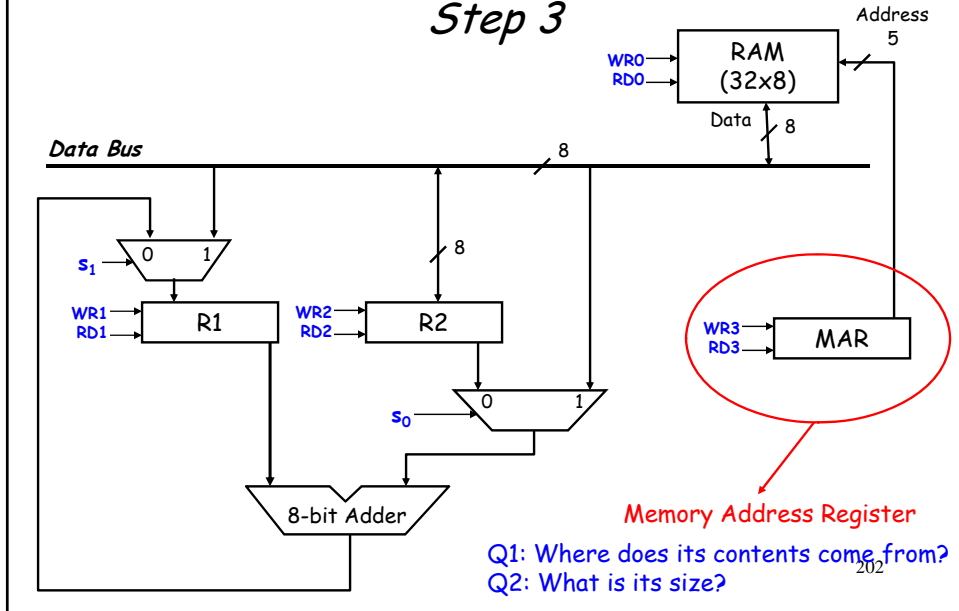
Our Simple Computer

Step 2



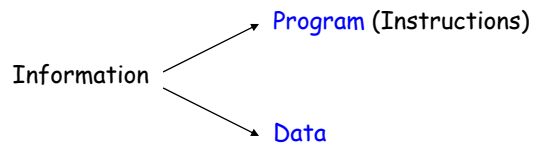
Our Simple Computer

Step 3



Data & Programs

Storage



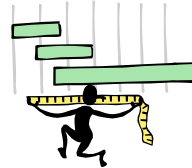
Q: Where is information stored?

Von Neumann architecture vs. Harvard architecture

Data Storage

Endians

- **Big Endian:**
 - Least Significant Byte @ higher address
 - Most Significant Byte @ lower address
 - **Little Endian:**
 - Least Significant Byte @ lower address
 - Most Significant Byte @ higher address
- Little Endian processors: Intel 80x86, Pentium II, VAX, Alpha
- Big Endian processors: 680x0, Sun SPARC
- PowerPC: Alter the Endian-ness using instructions



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Data Storage

Example - Little Endian

Intel Pentium (little Endian)

Write $3D7E12AB_{16}$ to
memory location 00635_{16} gives:

Read one 2-byte word from
memory location 00639_{16}
yields: 0811_{16}

	⋮
00633_{16}	00_{16}
00634_{16}	80_{16}
00635_{16}	AB_{16}
00636_{16}	12_{16}
00637_{16}	$7E_{16}$
00638_{16}	$3D_{16}$
00639_{16}	11_{16}
$0063A_{16}$	08_{16}
$0063B_{16}$	CC_{16}
	⋮

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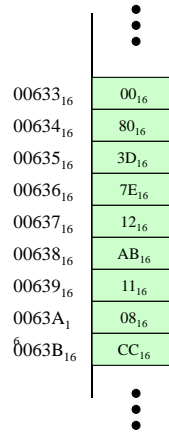
Data Storage

Example - Big Endian

SUN Sparc (Big Endian)

Write $3D7E12AB_{16}$ to
memory location 00635_{16} gives:

Read one 2-byte word from
memory location 00639_{16}
yields: 1108_{16}



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Data Storage

Bits & Bytes

Nibble	- 4 bits
Byte	- 8 bits
Word	- 16 bits (2 bytes)
Double word	- 32 bits (4 bytes)
Quad word	- 64 bits (8 bytes)

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Program Storage

The Instruction

Op-code (operation code)

Determines what operation must be performed.
(what to do)

Operand

Determines on what variable (memory) the operation must be performed.
(what to do it with)

Either a register or a memory location.

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Program Storage

The Instruction Format

0-address: <op-code>
1-address: <op-code> address1
2-address: <op-code> address1, address2
3-address: <op-code> address1, address2, address3

→ Either there is no operand at all or there is an implied operand within the op-code.

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Program Storage

Instruction Examples

Processor	Assembly	RTL	Format
MIPS	add a, b, c	$(a) \leftarrow (b) + (c)$	3-address
Intel	mov ax,[1234h]	$(ax) \leftarrow (1234h)$	2-address
PIC	movlw 05	$(w) \leftarrow 5$	1-address
Motorola 68HC11	inca	$(a) \leftarrow (a) + 1$	0-address
Intel	hlt	halt computer	0-address

↑
Unique for each computer

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Instruction Set Architecture

Addressing Modes

An instruction consists of an **op-code** & an **operand**.
The **operand** represents the variable on which the instruction operates.

<op-code> address1, address2, ...



This is referred as an **address field**.

The **addressing modes** describe how the operands are obtained from the instruction address fields.

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Instruction Set Architecture

Immediate and Direct Addressing

Immediate Addressing:
The address field is the operand

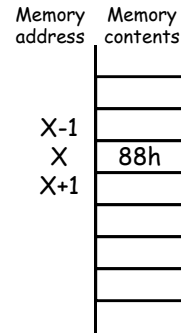
RTL: $(R) \leftarrow 88$

Direct Addressing
The address field contains the address, X, of the memory location of the operand

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (X)$

Example: $(R1) \leftarrow (1234)$
Move the contents of memory with address 'X' to register, R1

Note: 'X' can also be the name of another register: $(R1) \leftarrow (R2)$



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Instruction Set Architecture

Example

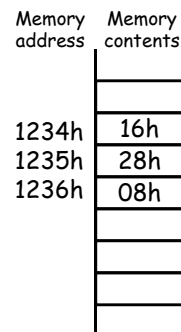
Given:

Given the following RTL code segment:

Line 1: $(R1) \leftarrow 12h$
Line 2: $(R2) \leftarrow (1235h)$
Line 3: $(R3) \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$
Line 4: $(R4) \leftarrow (R1) - (R1)$
Line 5: $(1236h) \leftarrow (R4)$

Questions:

What are the contents of R1, R2, R3, R4 and memory Location 1236h?



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Instruction Set Architecture

Indirect Addressing

Indirect Addressing

The address field contains the address, W , of a memory location, which in turn contains the address, X , of the operand

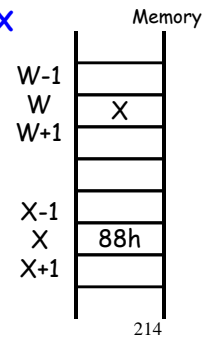
RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (W)$ with $(W) = X$

Note: if W is a register, we refer to this addressing mode as **Register Indirect Addressing**

Example: if $(R1) = 12h$ and $(R2) = 45h$ then

$(R1) \leftarrow ((R2))$

Moves the contents of memory location 45h to R1



Instruction Set Architecture

Relative Addressing

Relative Addressing

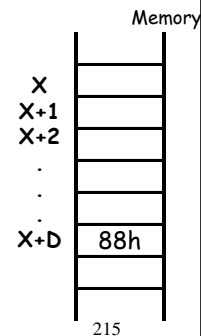
The address field contains a relative address, D (also called an offset or displacement). The instruction also implicitly or explicitly identifies another storage location L containing additional information. The address is obtained by some function of L and D . (usually an addition)

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (L) + D$

If L is a register, some computers use the nomenclature:
Register indirect with offset (if D = a number)

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (L) + (D)$

If L and D are registers, some computers use the nomenclature:
Register indirect with index (if D = a register)



Instruction Set Architecture

Example

Given:

Given the following RTL code segment:

Line 1: $(R1) \leftarrow ((R2) + 12h)$
 Line 2: $(R3) \leftarrow ((R2) + (R1))$

And given that before the two lines of code:
 $(R2) = 1224h$

Questions:

What are the contents of R1 and R3?

Memory address	Memory contents
1234 _H	12h
1235 _H	11h
1236 _H	10h

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Instruction Set Architecture

Effective Address

The effective address is the address of the operand as calculated by the addressing mode.

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (L) + D$

"(L) + D" is referred to as the effective address of this operand

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (X)$

"X" is referred to as the effective address of this operand

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Instruction Set Architecture

Relative Addressing - 2

Why is relative addressing useful?

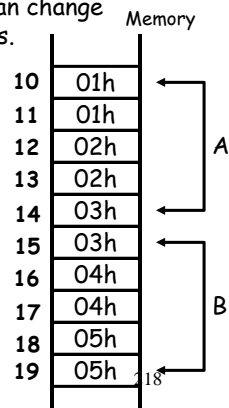
- The instruction length may be reduced!
- By changing **L** (often called the base register) one can change all the absolute addresses for a block of instructions.

Example:

- $(R1) \leftarrow ((L1) + D)$
- $(R2) \leftarrow ((L1) - D)$
- $(R1) \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$

A: Suppose $(L1) = 12, D = 2$, then
 after a: $(R1) = 3$, after b: $(R2) = 1$
 after c: $(R1) = 4$

B: Suppose $(L1) = 17, D = 2$, then
 after a: $(R1) = 5$, after b: $(R2) = 3$
 after c: $(R1) = 8$



Instruction Set Architecture

Relative Addressing - 3

Why is relative addressing useful (continued)?

- L** can store indexes to facilitate processing of indexed data such as tables and lists

Example:

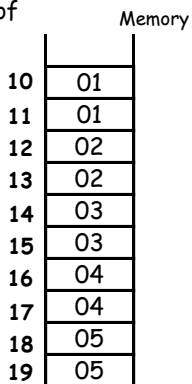
```

(L) ← 0
(R1) ← 0
while (L) is not equal to 5,
  (R1) ← (R1) + ((L) + 10)
  (L) ← (L) + 1
end
    
```

Each time you execute these lines of RTL is referred to as a pass

Condition

While loop



Q: What is $(R1)$ after execution of these RTL instructions?

Answer: after pass 1: $(R1) = 01, (L) = 1$, after pass 2: $(R1) = 02, (L) = 2$,
 after pass 3: $(R1) = 04, (L) = 3$, after pass 4: $(R1) = 06, (L) = 4$,
 after pass 5: $(R1) = 09, (L) = 5$

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Instruction Set Architecture

Relative Addressing - 4

Drawback?

Relative addressing requires more combinational and sequential logic to implement!

RTL: $(R) \leftarrow (L) + D$

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Addressing Modes

Processors Examples

- PowerPC:
 - Register indirect with offset,
 - Register indirect with index.
- MIPS RX000:
 - Register indirect with offset.
- PICMicro 16F877:
 - Direct,
 - Indirect,
 - Relative.
- Intel:
 - Register indirect and direct
 - Immediate
 - Based addressing, based-indexed addressing
 - Direct, etc.

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